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▶ To cite this version:

Jeremie B.E. Meurisse, Alejandro Alvarez Laguna, Marco Panesi, Nagi Mansour. Three-dimensional unsteady model of arc heater plasma flow. Aerospace Science and Technology, 2022, 123, pp.107465. 10.1016/j.ast.2022.107465 . hal-03730481

HAL Id: hal-03730481 https://hal.science/hal-03730481v1

Submitted on 14 Nov 2022

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Three-dimensional unsteady model of arc heater plasma flow

Jeremie B. E. Meurisse^{a,*}, Alejandro Alvarez Laguna^b, Marco Panesi^c, Nagi N. Mansour^a

Abstract

Arc jets are unique facilities used to evaluate the performance of Thermal Protection Systems (TPS) for hypersonic vehicles. They produce high pressure and high enthalpy plasma flow to simulate the extreme heat encountered during atmospheric entry. The constricted arc heater part of an arc jet increases the test gas temperature by Joule heating. This study details the development of the three-dimensional unsteady plasma flow analysis tool, ARCHeS (ARC Heater Simulator). Coupled Navier-Stokes, radiative transfer and Maxwell equations yield current density, magnetism, radiation, and flow field solutions. The present work constitutes the first demonstration of an unsteady three-dimensional plasma flow simulation of high pressure and high enthalpy arc heater that captures kink instabilities of the electric arc. It is found that the arc attachment is mainly driven by upstream arc instabilities.

Keywords: Arc jet, Arc heater, Radiative transfer, Joule heating, Plasma, Arc instability, Arc attachment.

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Nomenclature

- \mathcal{I}_{ν}^{d} Discrete radiative intensity in direction Ω^{d} , W · m⁻²
- \mathcal{I}_{ν} Radiative intensity, W·m⁻²·sr⁻¹
- \mathbf{A} Magnetic vector potential, $\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{m}$
- \boldsymbol{B} Magnetic field, T
- E Electric field, $V \cdot m^{-1}$
- J Current density, A · m⁻²
- *n* Normal direction
- q Heat flux, W · m⁻²
- t Tangential direction
- u Velocity, $m \cdot s^{-1}$
- \mathcal{H} Planck's constant, kg · m² · s⁻¹
- \dot{m} Mass flux, kg · s⁻¹
- S Outgoing surface normal, m²
- a_d Gaussian quadrature weight
- B_{ν} Banded black body spectral radiative intensity, W · m⁻²
- c Speed of light in the medium., $m \cdot s^{-1}$
- e Internal energy, $J \cdot kg^{-1}$
- E_0 Stagnation energy, J · kg⁻¹
- h Enthalpy, $J \cdot kg^{-1}$
- H_0 Stagnation enthalpy, J · kg⁻¹
- I Electric current, A
- k_B Boltzmann's constant, J · K⁻¹
- k_i Incoming part of the radiative directional split
- k_o Outgoing part of the radiative directional split
- L_0 Characteristic length, m
- M Mach number
- N_a Number of anodes
- N_b Number of spectral bands
- N_d Number of directions

- p Pressure, Pa
- Q_J Joule heating, W · m⁻³
- R_b Resistance of the ballast configuration, Ω
- Re_m Magnetic Reynolds number
- Surface area, m²
- T Temperature, K
- U_0 Characteristic velocity, m · s⁻¹
- V Volume, m^3

Greek

- $\mathbf{\Omega}^d$ Discrete direction
- α Diffusivity, kg · m⁻¹ · s⁻¹
- ω Vorticity, s^{-1}
- $\underline{\underline{\tau}}$ Viscous stress tensor, kg · m · s⁻²
- ϵ_{ν} Emissivity
- η Magnetic diffusivity, m² · s⁻¹
- γ Heat capacity ratio
- κ_{ν} Linear absorption coefficient, m⁻¹
- μ Mixture viscosity, kg \cdot m $^{-1}$ \cdot s $^{-1}$
- μ_0 Vacuum magnetic permeability, H · m⁻¹
- ϕ Electric potential, V
- ψ Compressibility, s² · m⁻²
- ρ Mass density, kg · m⁻³
- σ Electrical conductivity, S · m⁻¹

Subscripts

- w Wall
- e External
- imp Imposed
- ind Induced
- a Anodes
- b Spectral band

c Cathodes

nc Neighbor cell

tot Total

Superscripts

cond Conductive

d Direction

rad Radiative

1. Introduction

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High enthalpy arc jet wind tunnels are the established ground-test technology used to evaluate the performance of Thermal Protection Systems (TPS) materials for human and robotic exploration missions. By providing a highly energetic flow over prolonged test times, arc jet facilities enable testing materials under extreme aerothermal heating experienced by spacecraft during planetary entry.

Arc jets are usually composed of an anode chamber, a long constrictor, a cathode chamber, a converging/diverging nozzle, and a test chamber. The number of electrodes, commonly made of copper, around the anode and cathode chambers is different among arc jet facilities. The large difference in electric potential between the anodes and the cathodes generates the extreme current 12 necessary to heat the test gas via Joule heating. The electrodes and the walls 13 have an internal water-cooling system to remove the heat created by the electric 14 arc. The constrictor, where most of the heating occurs, is usually built as a succession of gas-injecting disks that are insulated from each other by a ceramic material. The mixture of the cold gas injected through the disks is representative 17 of the planetary atmosphere of interest to a test campaign. This study focuses 18 on the arc heater part of an arc jet from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat. 19

Although the supersonic aerothermal modeling technology from the nozzle throat to the test chamber is well established and routinely used, the inlet conditions from the arc heater section have always been highly approximated in the literature [28, 6, 15]. An accurate model of the plasma physics that occur in the arc heater is needed to understand the gas conditions at the nozzle throat. High fidelity heat and mass transfer analysis tools of the sample material response in the test chamber are an active area of research [26, 3, 23, 8].

The importance of understanding the arc attachment and arc instabilities in arc jets was studied by [2, 36]. The interaction between the electric arc and the surrounding medium results in strong gradients in both the fluid and the electromagnetic fields, which can lead to various types of instabilities [5].

Numerical methods to compute the radiative transfer are available in the literature, such as ray tracing [48, 20, 22] and spatial and spectral discretization [4, 25, 24, 1]. Research by Trelles et al. [40, 37, 38, 39] investigated finite element modeling of industrial arc plasma torches using Argon gas. The collection of work by Trelles et al. includes detailed models of the plasma. However, given the empirical nature of the radiation model used, this work is more suitable 36 for smaller geometries, and lower total enthalpy flows. Park et al. [27], Sakai et al. [32, 31, 33, 30], and Lee et al. [19, 18] have studied numerical models of plasma flow in arc heaters. Wang et al. [44, 42, 43] have worked on modeling 3D vacuum arcs used in industrial applications, such as circuit breakers. Some of their results have been compared to anode jet experimental data. A three-41 dimensional unsteady simulation of NASA's Aerodynamic Heating Facility was performed by Sahai et al. [29] using the Fully-Implicit Navier-Stokes (FIN-S) solver [16, 17]. Their finite element solver included Joule heating, 3D radiative transfer, and non-equilibrium model for the plasma. A simplified geometry was used for the anode and cathode chambers in their study. The computational 46 cost of the solver limited the integration in time.

The objective of this study is to develop a better understanding of the multiphysics of the plasma flow inside arc heaters which will ultimately lead to a 49 more accurate characterization of the use of an arc jet in testing TPS materials. 50 The state-of-the-art ARC Heater Simulator (ARCHeS) analysis tool provides a 51 parallel, unstructured, finite volume solver based on the OpenFOAM library. ARCHeS includes the solution of three-dimensional radiative transfer, imposed current density, imposed magnetic field, external magnetic field, and turbulence. Realistic boundary conditions are added to the model. The open-source third 55 party library Mutation++, developed at the von Karman Institute for Fluid 56 Dynamics, is used to compute the equilibrium gas mixture composition as well as thermodynamic and transport properties [35]. Three-dimensional and timedependent simulations presented in this work show plasma instabilities in the 59 constrictor of the arc heater. Analysis of the electric arc dynamics will provide a better intuitive understanding of the complex behavior of plasma flow observed

- in arc jets. Massively parallel and efficient simulation capability in ARCHeS
- 63 allows long-time integration, necessary for the development of the plasma insta-
- 64 bilities.
- The paper is organized as follows. In section 2, the governing equations and
- the boundary conditions used in the plasma flow model are presented. Section
- ₆₇ 3 details the numerical model applied to solve the governing equations. In sec-
- tion 4, overall results are presented, including arc instabilities and attachment.
- ⁶⁹ Finally, section 5 summarizes the conclusions drawn from this study.

70 2. Governing Equations

2.1. Mass, momentum, and energy equations

The governing equations, described in Eq. (1), are the mass, momentum, and energy conservation laws.

$$\partial_t \rho + \partial_x \cdot (\rho u) = 0 \tag{1a}$$

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \partial_x \cdot (\rho u u) = -\partial_x p + \partial_x \cdot \underline{\tau} + J \times B$$
(1b)

$$\partial_{t}(\rho E_{0}) + \partial_{x} \cdot (\rho H_{0} \boldsymbol{u}) = \partial_{x} \cdot (\underline{\underline{\tau}} \cdot \boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{q}^{cond}) + \sigma |\boldsymbol{E}|^{2} + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot (\boldsymbol{J} \times \boldsymbol{B}) - \partial_{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{q}^{rad}$$
(1c)

 H_0 , E_0 and e are the stagnation enthalpy, stagnation energy, and internal energy.

$$H_0 = E_0 + \frac{p}{\rho} = e + \frac{|\mathbf{u}|^2}{2} + \frac{p}{\rho} \tag{2}$$

- The Lorentz force and work, the Joule heating, and the radiative heat-
- ing/cooling are detailed in the following subsections.
- 2.2. Electromagnetic equations

Chapter 3.4 of Goedbloed & Poedts [12] and section 5 of Giordano [10] give a general review of the coupling between plasma and Maxwell's equations. The governing equations, detailed in Eq. (1), remain unclosed. Maxwell's equations result in the following dynamic equations for the current and magnetic fields. Ampere's law is given by

$$-\frac{1}{c^2}\partial_t \mathbf{E} + \boldsymbol{\partial}_x \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{J}$$
 (3)

Given the non-relativistic system in the arc heater $(U_0 \ll c^2)$, Ampere's law, Eq. (3), reduces to

$$\partial_x \times \boldsymbol{B} = \mu_0 \boldsymbol{J} \tag{4}$$

The generalized Ohm's law, as shown in Eq. (40) of Ref. [10], is given by

$$\boldsymbol{J} = \sigma \left(\boldsymbol{E} + \boldsymbol{u} \times \boldsymbol{B} \right) \tag{5}$$

The magnetic Reynolds number, detailed in Eq. (6), compares magnetic induction to magnetic diffusion.

$$Re_{m} = \frac{U_{0}L_{0}}{\eta}$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{\mu_{0}\sigma}$$
(6a)

$$\eta = \frac{1}{\mu_0 \sigma} \tag{6b}$$

In the considered arc heaters, the magnetic Reynolds number is about 10^{-3} , which corresponds to a highly resistive plasma. This system with low Re_m is dominated by magnetic diffusion, and inductive terms are neglected. Using the quasi-static approximation, the Ohm's law, from Eq. (5), reduces to

$$\boldsymbol{J} = \sigma \boldsymbol{E} \tag{7}$$

In this work, the electromagnetic four-potential formulation [14] is used to write

$$\boldsymbol{E} = -\boldsymbol{\partial_x} \phi - \partial_t \boldsymbol{A} \tag{8a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{B} = \boldsymbol{\partial_x} \times \boldsymbol{A} \tag{8b}$$

In this case, the current is driven by a differential of electric potential between the electrodes, and an external magnetic field in the electrode region is added to prevent the arc attachment at one point. The total electric field is split into two parts in order to simplify the boundary conditions. The first part is an imposed electric field, E_{imp} , where the fluid is assumed stationary compared to the imposed electric potential. Therefore, the fluid is treated as an electric conductor. The second part is an induced electric field, E_{ind} , generated by fluctuations of the total magnetic vector potential and the gradient of the induced electric potential. The split of the total electric field follows

$$E_{imn} = -\partial_x \phi_{imn} \tag{9a}$$

$$E_{ind} = -\partial_t (A_{imp} + A_e + A_{ind}) - \partial_x \phi_{ind}$$
 (9b)

$$E = E_{imp} + E_{ind} \tag{9c}$$

Ohm's law, from Eq. (7), yields

$$J_{imp} = -\sigma \partial_x \phi_{imp} \tag{10a}$$

$$J_{ind} = -\sigma \left[\partial_t (A_{imp} + A_e + A_{ind}) + \partial_x \phi_{ind} \right]$$
 (10b)

$$\boldsymbol{J} = \boldsymbol{J}_{imp} + \boldsymbol{J}_{ind} \tag{10c}$$

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The induced fields generated by the movement of the charges in the plasma flow were not computed in this work. As shown in Eq. (6), the low magnetic Reynolds number indicates that advection is relatively unimportant, which means that the electric field (E) is determined by the boundary conditions (E_{imp}) rather than the flow (E_{ind}) . Therefore, the induced electric field and the magnetic vector potential were neglected. Future work will compare the induced and imposed fields.

$$\boldsymbol{E}_{ind} = \boldsymbol{A}_{ind} = \boldsymbol{0} \tag{11}$$

2.2.1. Imposed electric field

We define the imposed electric field as the electric field that is created by the potential difference between the electrodes. The electric field is sustained inside the plasma due to the finite conductivity, which generates a conductive current that heats the gas. Consequently, the imposed current continuity comes from the divergence of Eq. (4) that yields the current conservation relation,

$$\partial_{x} \cdot J_{imp} = 0. \tag{12}$$

 $_{80}$ The plasma is considered to be quasi-neutral in the whole domain, hence ne-

glecting the sheaths at the walls and electrodes.

Substituting Eq. (10a) in Eq. (12) gives

$$\partial_{x} \cdot (-\sigma \partial_{x} \phi_{imp}) = 0 \tag{13}$$

By solving for the electric potential using Eq. (13), the electric field is computed as

$$E_{imp} = -\partial_x \phi_{imp} \tag{14}$$

The Joule heating is expressed as follows

$$Q_J = \sigma |\mathbf{E}_{imp}|^2 = \sigma |-\partial_{\mathbf{x}}\phi_{imp}|^2 \tag{15}$$

2.2.2. Imposed magnetic field

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The imposed magnetic field is defined as the magnetic field induced by the imposed current. Using charge neutrality of the plasma, the imposed vector

magnetic field must satisfy,

$$-\partial_x^2 \mathbf{A}_{imp} = -\mu_0 \sigma \partial_x \phi_{imp} \tag{16}$$

After solving for the imposed magnetic vector potential using Eq. (16), the imposed magnetic field is computed as follows,

$$\boldsymbol{B}_{imp} = \boldsymbol{\partial_x} \times \boldsymbol{A}_{imp} \tag{17}$$

This ensures that $\partial_x \cdot B_{imp} = 0$. Note that in regions where the flow is not conductive, i.e., $\sigma \approx 0$, the imposed magnetic vector potential satisfies the Laplace equation.

$$\partial_x^2 \mathbf{A}_{imp} \approx 0 \tag{18}$$

2.2.3. External magnetic field

The external magnetic field is the magnetic field that is generated outside
the plasma by an external source. In the studied arc heaters, a magnetic field is
created within the electrode to create a force that moves the attachment point
of the current and protects the electrode from erosion [46], as represented in
Fig. 1.

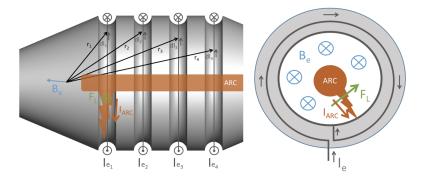


Figure 1: Representation of the magnetic spin coil in series with the arc current contained in each electrode. The external magnetic field creates a force that rotates the arc attachment point and reduces erosion.

The Biot-Savart law is used to express the external magnetic field B_e , generated by the wire wrapped within the electrode assembly,

$$\partial_x^2 \boldsymbol{A}_e = -\mu_0 \boldsymbol{J}_e \tag{19}$$

The analytic solution of Eq. (19) is given by

$$\mathbf{A}_{e}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{\mathbf{J}_{e}(\mathbf{r'})}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r'}|} d^3 \mathbf{r'}$$
 (20)

For a thin wire of infinitesimal thickness, this results in

$$\mathbf{A}_{e}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mu_{0}I_{e}}{4\pi} \oint \frac{d\mathbf{l}}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r'}|}$$
 (21)

where ∮ is the integral along the length of the wire. The external magnetic vector potential from Eq. (21) was numerically solved using 60 points for the contour integral. The external magnetic field was then computed as follows

$$\boldsymbol{B}_e = \boldsymbol{\partial_x} \times \boldsymbol{A}_e \tag{22}$$

This formulation ensures that $\partial_{x}\cdot B_{e}=0$ in the computational domain.

2.3. Radiative heat flux

Radiative Transfer Equations (RTE) are solved in this work to characterize
the radiative heat flux. In the literature on arc plasma torches modeling, simpler approaches are found to tackle radiation. The most common one considers
the radiative flux as a function of the local properties through a Net Emission
Coefficient (NEC) [21, 11]. Alternatively, the tangent slab approximation that
reduces the RTE to one spatial dimension is often used for cylindrical geometries
[34]. However, both approximations cannot be used in the presence of 3D instabilities with strong temperature gradients, as the radiation no longer depends
on the local properties nor the physics can be reduced to cylindrical symmetry.

The total radiative heat flux is given by integrating the spectral radiative heat flux over the entire spectrum. The integral is approximated by a sum of discrete spectral radiative heat fluxes with a number of bands N_b , as follows,

$$\mathbf{q}^{rad} \approx \sum_{\nu=1}^{N_b} \mathbf{q}_{\nu}^{rad} \tag{23}$$

Here, \mathbf{q}_{ν}^{rad} is given by integrating the radiative intensity in direction Ω over the complete solid angle. The Discrete Ordinates Method is used to discretize \mathbf{q}_{ν}^{rad} into a set of 1-D steady state RTE. The integral over the solid angle is replaced by a weighted sum of discrete radiative intensities. Gaussian quadrature is employed to determine discrete directions Ω_d and weights a_d for different degrees of approximation (N_d directions) as

$$\mathbf{q}_{\nu}^{rad} = \int_{4\pi} \mathbf{\Omega} \mathcal{I}_{\nu}(\mathbf{\Omega}) d\mathbf{\Omega} \approx \sum_{d=1}^{N_d} a_d \mathcal{I}_{\nu}^d \mathbf{\Omega}_d$$
 (24)

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For a non-scattering plasma, the 1-D steady state RTE of direction Ω_d is expressed as

$$\mathbf{\Omega}_d \cdot \mathbf{\partial}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{I}_{\nu}^d = \kappa_{\nu} B_{\nu} - \kappa_{\nu} \mathcal{I}_{\nu}^d \tag{25}$$

The linear absorption coefficient κ_{ν} was calculated following the Planck Mean Absorption Coefficient band-averaging model [9]. The Line-By-Line spectral properties in air plasma were computed by the Nonequilibrium Air Radiation (NEQAIR) program [45] using more than 500,000 wavelengths between 0.04 μ m and 20 μ m.

The banded black body spectral radiance intensity is given by

$$B_{\nu}(T) = \int_{\nu}^{\nu+1} \frac{2\mathcal{H}\nu^{3}}{c^{2}} \frac{1}{\exp(\mathcal{H}\nu/k_{B}T) - 1} d\nu$$
 (26)

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The left-hand side of Eq. (25) integrated over the cell volume gives

$$\int_{V_c} \mathbf{\Omega}_d \cdot \mathbf{\partial}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{I}_{\nu}^d \ dV = \int_{V_c} \mathbf{\partial}_{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \left(\mathbf{\Omega}_d \mathcal{I}_{\nu}^d \right) dV = \int_{S_c} \mathcal{I}_{\nu}^d \ \mathbf{\Omega}_d \cdot \ d\mathbf{S} \approx \sum_{c=1}^{N_{nc}} \mathcal{I}_{\nu,c}^d \ \mathbf{\Omega}_d \cdot \Delta \mathbf{S_c}$$
(27)

The surface integral in Eq. (27) is approximated by a summation over the faces of face-centered values times the corresponding cell areas.

The right-hand side of Eq. (25) integrated over the cell volume gives

$$\int_{V_c} \kappa_{\nu} \left(B_{\nu} - \mathcal{I}_{\nu}^d \right) dV \approx \kappa_{\nu,c} \left(B_{\nu,c} - \mathcal{I}_{\nu,c}^d \right) V_c \tag{28}$$

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The volume integral in Eq. (28) is approximated by the cell center value of the integrand times the cell volume. Eq. (27) and (28) give

$$\sum_{c=1}^{N_{nc}} \mathcal{I}_{\nu,c}^d \, \mathbf{\Omega}_d \cdot \Delta \mathbf{S_c} = \kappa_{\nu,c} \left(B_{\nu,c} - \mathcal{I}_{\nu,c}^d \right) V_c \tag{29}$$

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As represented in Fig. 2, Eq. (29) is split into an incoming part $(k_i \in \Omega_d \cdot \Delta S_c < 0)$ and an outgoing part $(k_o \in \Omega_d \cdot \Delta S_c > 0)$. This is expressed in mathematical terms as

$$\sum_{k_i=1}^{N_{k_i}} \mathcal{I}_{\nu,k_i}^d \mathbf{\Omega}_d \cdot \Delta \mathbf{S_c} + \mathcal{I}_{\nu,c}^d \sum_{k_o=1}^{N_{k_o}} \mathbf{\Omega}_d \cdot \Delta \mathbf{S_c} = \kappa_{\nu,c} \left(B_{\nu,c} - \mathcal{I}_{\nu,c}^d \right) V_c.$$
 (30)

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Consequently, an explicit expression of the radiative intensity at the cell c is obtained as follows

$$\mathcal{I}_{\nu,c}^{d} = \frac{\sum_{k_i=1}^{N_{k_i}} \mathcal{I}_{\nu,k_i}^{d} \mathbf{\Omega}_d \cdot \Delta \mathbf{S_c} + \kappa_{\nu,c} B_{\nu,c} V_c}{\sum_{k_i=1}^{N_{k_o}} \mathbf{\Omega}_d \cdot \Delta \mathbf{S_c} + \kappa_{\nu,c} V_c}$$
(31)

 $\mathcal{I}_{\nu,c}^d$ is solved in Eq. (31) for each band and direction following a specific order, different for each direction, represented in Fig. 2.

The divergence of the total radiative heat flux at each cell c is given by

$$\partial_{x} \cdot \mathbf{q}_{c}^{rad} = \sum_{\nu=1}^{N_{b}} \sum_{d=1}^{N_{d}} \frac{a_{d} \mathcal{I}_{\nu,c}^{d} \mathbf{\Omega}_{d} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{S_{c}}}{V_{c}}$$
(32)

 $\Omega_d \xrightarrow{\Delta S_1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 \\ \Delta S_2 & 1 & 3 \\ k_i \in \Omega_d . \Delta S_c < 0 \\ k_o \in \Omega_d . \Delta S_c > 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Figure 2: Representation of the directional split into an incoming and outgoing part and the specific advance order used in the computation of the radiative heat flux.

2.4. Boundary Conditions

The Boundary Conditions (BC) used are presented (see Fig. 3) in this section for the multiple physics phenomena involved in these arc heater simulations.

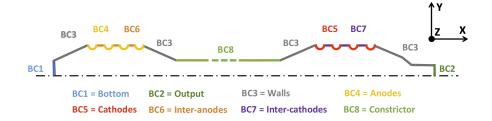


Figure 3: Representation of the boundary conditions in the studied arc heater. The flow is injected at the inter-anodes (BC6) and constrictor (BC8). BC2 is treated as an outflow boundary.

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2.4.1. Flow

The water-cooled arc heater walls (BC3), constrictor (BC8), and interelectrodes (BC6 and BC7) are assumed to be at a constant temperature. The electrodes (BC4 and BC5) and the outlet (BC2) are assumed adiabatic. A constant air inlet mass flux is imposed at the inter-anodes (BC6) and constrictor (BC8). The swirling inlet velocity is computed as follows

$$u = \frac{-\dot{m}}{\rho |S|} (n + tan(\theta) t)$$
 with $t = n_{axis} \times n$. (33)

The tangential inclination angle is set at 45° to promote air mixing. Table 1 gives a summary of the BC that are used for the flow in this study.

	p [Pa]	T [K]	$u \; [\mathrm{m/s}]$
BC1	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} p \cdot \boldsymbol{n} = 0$	$T_w = 500 \text{ K}$	u = 0
BC2	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} p \cdot \boldsymbol{n} = 0$	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}T\cdot\boldsymbol{n}=0$	$\boldsymbol{\partial_x u \cdot n} = \boldsymbol{0}$
BC3	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} p \cdot \boldsymbol{n} = 0$	$T_w = 500 \text{ K}$	$oldsymbol{u}=oldsymbol{0}$
BC4	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} p \cdot \boldsymbol{n} = 0$	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} T \cdot \boldsymbol{n} = 0$	$oldsymbol{u}=oldsymbol{0}$
BC5	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} p \cdot \boldsymbol{n} = 0$	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}T\cdot\boldsymbol{n}=0$	$oldsymbol{u}=oldsymbol{0}$
BC6	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} p \cdot \boldsymbol{n} = 0$	$T_w = 500 \text{ K}$	$\dot{m}_{BC6}=0.05~\mathrm{kg/s}$
BC7	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} p \cdot \boldsymbol{n} = 0$	$T_w = 500 \text{ K}$	$oldsymbol{u}=oldsymbol{0}$
BC8	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} p \cdot \boldsymbol{n} = 0$	$T_w = 500 \text{ K}$	$\dot{m}_{BC8} = 0.4 \text{ kg/s}$

Table 1: Summary of the BC for the Navier-Stokes equations.

2.4.2. Electromagnetism

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The power supply to the arc heater is a constant current supply, and therefore, the electric field will adjust to enable a constant current between the anode and cathode chambers. The anode current density is considered constant in this study, as follows

$$\sigma \partial_{\mathbf{x}} \phi_{imp,a_i} \cdot \mathbf{n} = -\mathbf{J}_{imp,a_i} \quad \text{and} \quad I_{imp,a_i} = \int_{S_{a_i}} \mathbf{J}_{imp,a_i} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$
 (34)

An unbalanced current at the electrodes will result in an uneven current attachment: the electrode with the highest current will experience the highest

heating near the surface, which results in the highest conductivity for the gas near the surface, thus reinforcing the location of this attachment. A stable concentrated current attachment will result in mechanical failure (erosion or melting) of the electrode. The use of a ballast configuration balances the electric potential at each electrode to force an even distribution of the total current. The same resistance is used for all electrodes. The configuration results in a mixed boundary condition at the cathodes. This reads in mathematical terms

$$-I_{imp,c_i} = \int_{S_{c_i}} \sigma \partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \phi_{imp,c_i} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{R_b} (\phi_{imp,c_i} - \phi_G)$$
 (35)

An explicit scheme is used to impose the above BC. This is done by setting the potential at the discretized time step n to

$$\phi_{imp,c_i}^n = \phi_G - R_b I_{imp,c_i}^{n-1} \tag{36}$$

with $I_{imp,c_i}^0 = 0$ initially, otherwise

$$I_{imp,c_i}^{n-1} = \int_{S_{c_i}} -\sigma \partial_x \phi_{imp,c_i}^{n-1} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$
(37)

i.e., the potential at the cathodes is adjusted by using the electric current from the previous time step. Note that the continuity of the electric current ensures that

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{N_{c_i}} I_{imp,c_i} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{a_i}} I_{imp,a_i} = I_{imp,tot}$$
(38)

The walls of segmented arc heaters are water-cooled copper rings that are isolated from each other by thin ceramic (non-conductive) spacers. The rings are electrically isolated from the ground, and the spacers prevent current along the walls. In this configuration, electrically floating rings ensure proper adjustment of the electric potential. The walls of the constrictor are made of floating rings except at the electrodes where voltage is applied to ensure constant current. As

such, charge will accumulate in each ring so that

$$\boldsymbol{J}_{imp,w} = \boldsymbol{0} \tag{39}$$

Thus, the electrical potential boundary condition at the wall is

$$\partial_{x}\phi_{imp,w} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0 \tag{40}$$

Table 2 summarizes the BC that are used for the electromagnetic equations in this simulation.

	ϕ_{imp} [V]	$m{A}_{imp} \left[ext{T} \cdot ext{m} ight]$	$m{A}_e \ [\mathrm{T} \cdot \mathrm{m}]$
BC1	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}\phi_{imp}\cdot\boldsymbol{n}=0$	$oldsymbol{A}_{imp} = oldsymbol{0}$	$oldsymbol{A}_e = oldsymbol{0}$
BC2	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}\phi_{imp}\cdot\boldsymbol{n}=0$	$oldsymbol{A}_{imp} = oldsymbol{0}$	$oldsymbol{A}_e = oldsymbol{0}$
BC3	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}\phi_{imp}\cdot\boldsymbol{n}=0$	$oldsymbol{A}_{imp} = oldsymbol{0}$	$oldsymbol{A}_e = oldsymbol{0}$
BC4	$I_{imp,tot} = 1200 \text{ A}$	$oldsymbol{A}_{imp} = oldsymbol{0}$	$oldsymbol{A}_e = oldsymbol{0}$
BC5	$\phi_{imp,c_i}^n = \phi_G - R_b I_{imp,c_i}^{n-1}$	$oldsymbol{A}_{imp} = oldsymbol{0}$	$oldsymbol{A}_e = oldsymbol{0}$
BC6	$\boldsymbol{\partial}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\phi_{imp}\cdot\boldsymbol{n}=0$	$oldsymbol{A}_{imp} = oldsymbol{0}$	$oldsymbol{A}_e = oldsymbol{0}$
BC7	$\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}\phi_{imp}\cdot\boldsymbol{n}=0$	$oldsymbol{A}_{imp} = oldsymbol{0}$	$oldsymbol{A}_e = oldsymbol{0}$
BC8	$\boldsymbol{\partial}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\phi_{imp}\cdot\boldsymbol{n}=0$	$oldsymbol{A}_{imp} = oldsymbol{0}$	$oldsymbol{A}_e = oldsymbol{0}$

Table 2: Summary of the BC for the Maxwell equations.

2.4.3. Radiation

The walls are made of unpolished copper and are assumed to behave as a gray body at the wall temperature. We set the emissivity of copper $\epsilon_{\nu}=0.6$, constant for all wavelengths. The average radiative intensity from the wall surface, emitted by each band, is given by

$$\mathcal{I}_{\nu,w}^d = \epsilon_{\nu} B_{\nu} \tag{41}$$

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3. Numerical model

The numerical framework is based on OpenFOAM, an open-source, modern, 132 and modular C++ finite volume library. This framework offers a wide range 133 of numerical schemes, interpolation schemes, integration methods, turbulence 134 models, thermodynamic models, and flow solvers. The governing equations are sequentially solved as explained in Algorithm 1. The OpenFOAM semi-discrete 136 finite volume solver rhoCentralFoam has been chosen for modeling the flow. 137 The non-staggered central scheme that is used in this solver has proven to be 138 accurate in the simulations of high-speed compressible flows [13]. Additionally, 139 a $k-\epsilon$ model is applied to the flow turbulence [7]. Second order accuracy in space is achieved with a total variation diminishing (TVD) scheme with van 141 Albada's limiter [41]. The Maxwell equations, described in Eq. (13) and (16), 142 that link the electric and magnetic fields are computed by using a generalized 143 Geometric-Algebraic Multi-Grid (GAMG) solver. The Mutation++ library [35], 144 dynamically linked to the OpenFOAM thermodynamic framework, is used to compute equilibrium chemistry compositions and thermodynamic and trans-146 port properties, as detailed in Appendix A. The discretization of radiative heat 147 flux uses a multi-band approximation of the non-gray spectral properties of 148 high-temperature air. The radiative directional integration is determined by 149 a Gaussian type quadrature. The contributions of the electric field, magnetic 150 field, and radiative heat flux are added as source terms to the momentum and 151 energy equations. 152

Algorithm 1 ARCHeS

```
1: function Main
          create time and mesh
 2:
           read and initialize user configurations
 3:
                                                        \triangleright flags for radiation and electromagnetism
 4:
          read fields p^0, T^0, \boldsymbol{u}^0, \phi^0, \boldsymbol{A}^0, \boldsymbol{\partial_x} \cdot \boldsymbol{q}_{rad}^0 compute \alpha^0, \psi^0, \mu^0, \sigma^0, \gamma^0, e^0, \rho^0
 5:
 6:
                                                            \,\triangleright thermodynamics in function of p^0,\,T^0
 7:
          initialize radiation and electromagnetism
 8:
           \mathbf{while} \ \mathrm{RunTime} \ \mathbf{do}
 9:
               correct boundary conditions for \boldsymbol{u}^n,\,\sigma^n,\,\phi^n compute \phi^{n+1},\,\boldsymbol{A}^{n+1}
10:
11:
12:

⊳ solve electromagnetic equations

                compute \partial_{\boldsymbol{x}} \cdot \boldsymbol{q}_{rad}^{n+1}
13:
                                                                                                ▷ solve radiation
14:
                compute fluxes and source terms
15:
                compute \rho^{n+1}
16:
                                                                                        17:
                compute \boldsymbol{u}^{n+1}
18:

⊳ solve momentum equations

19:
                compute e^{n+1}
20:
                                                                                      21:
                compute T^{n+1}
22:
                compute \alpha^{n+1}, \psi^{n+1}, \mu^{n+1}, \sigma^{n+1}, \gamma^{n+1}
23:
                                                       \triangleright thermodynamics in function of p^n, T^{n+1}
24:
                compute p^{n+1}
25:
               correct p^{n+1}, \rho^{n+1} boundaries compute \mu_{eff}^{n+1}, and \alpha_{eff}^{n+1}
26:
27:
                                                                     \triangleright solve k - \epsilon turbulence equations
28:
                write fields
29:
30:
```

3 4. Results

154 4.1. Flow

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Figure 4 shows the pressure and temperature profiles along the centerline axis 155 of the arc heater. The pressure has a maximum value of 13.3 atm, almost steady in the anode chamber. The pressure gently decreases along the constrictor from 157 13.2 to 9.2 atm. The pressure stays constant in the cathode chamber and then 158 drops again in the convergent part. The pressure is about 3.5 atm at the nozzle 159 throat. The time-averaged temperature computed from 0.4640 s to 0.5759 s160 has a maximum value of ~ 8000 K. The temperature increases in the anode chamber. The instantaneous time values of the temperature highly fluctuate in the constructor as a consequence of the arc instabilities. The temperature drops 163 from 7500 K at the cathode chamber to 4400 K at the nozzle throat. 164

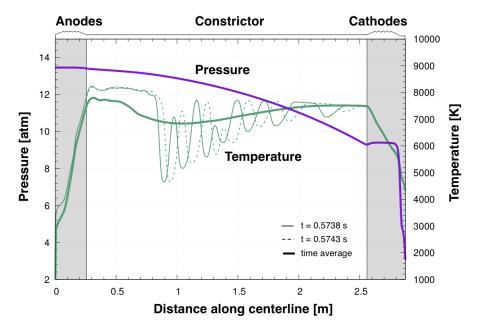


Figure 4: Pressure and temperature profiles along the centerline axis.

Figure 5 shows the enthalpy and velocity profiles along the centerline axis of the arc heater. The time-averaged enthalpy and velocity were computed from 0.4640 s to 0.5759 s. The enthalpy follows the trend of the temperature (Fig.

4). The maximum of the time-averaged enthalpy is about 24 $\rm MJ \cdot kg^{-1}$. For both instantaneous and time-averaged, the gas enthalpy increases in the anode 169 chamber and decreases in the cathode chamber. In the constrictor region, the averaged value drops only to increase again so that the value at the exit of the 171 constrictor is similar to the one at the entrance. Alternatively, instantaneous 172 values show high fluctuation that is indicative of arc instabilities. Instantaneous 173 and time-averaged velocities along the centerline follow a similar trend. The velocity is low in the anode chamber due to the absence of air injection, which is introduced along the inter-anodes and the constrictor (Fig. 3). The velocity 176 increases up to 550 m \cdot s⁻¹ in the constrictor, drops in the divergent part, and 177 increases again in the convergent part of the cathode chamber. The flow is 178 subsonic in the anode chamber, the constrictor, and the cathode chamber. The Mach number equals 1 at the nozzle throat. The flow becomes supersonic after the nozzle throat. 181

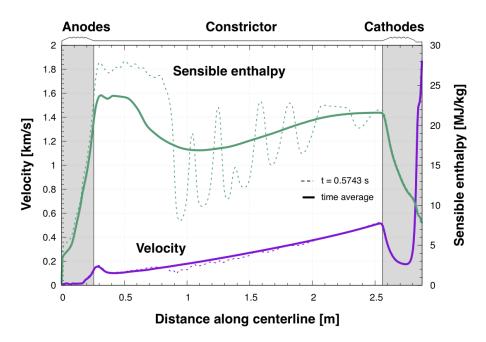


Figure 5: Velocity and enthalpy profiles along the centerline axis.

Figure 6 shows the XY cutting plane of the temperature from the anode

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chamber to the nozzle throat. The highest temperature (around 8000 K) is close to the centerline axis because of the low temperature imposed at the water-cooled walls. Arc instabilities are visible in the constrictor. A three-dimensional unsteady modeling tool is needed to capture these instabilities.

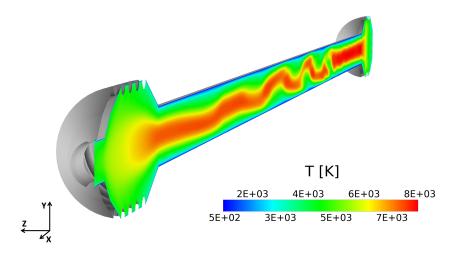


Figure 6: Temperature XY cutting plane from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat, $t=0.5738~\mathrm{s}.$

Figure 7 shows the YZ cutting plane of the temperature for different times at X=1.5 m. The shape of the high-temperature electric arc core shows an unsteady behavior. The dynamic of the arc indicates that the instability saturates next to the wall. The core cannot get close to the constrictor wall due to the injection of low-temperature air and due to the water cooling system.

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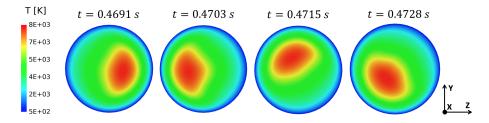


Figure 7: Temperature YZ cutting plane at $X=1.5~\mathrm{m}$ for different times.

Figures 8 and 9 show the XY cutting plane of the velocity at the cathode

and anode chambers. The inlet mass flow is $0.05 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ in the anode chamber and $0.4 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ in the constrictor. The gas velocity is higher next to the centerline axis. The highest velocity of $1.9 \text{ km} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ is located at the end of the computational domain, just after the nozzle throat. Figure 9 shows that the flow is impacted by the arc instabilities in the constrictor.

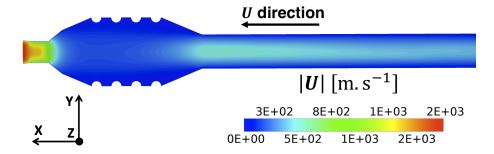


Figure 8: Velocity XY cutting plane in the constrictor and the cathode chamber, t=0.5738 s.

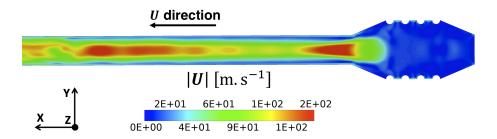


Figure 9: Velocity XY cutting plane in the constrictor and the anode chamber, t=0.5738~s.

Figure 10 shows cutting planes of the vorticity ω computed as follows

$$\boldsymbol{\omega} = \boldsymbol{\partial}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \times \boldsymbol{u} \tag{42}$$

As described in section 2.4, the flow is injected at the inter-anodes and constrictor. The XY cutting plane shows the vorticity magnitude for the entire geometry. The highest vorticity magnitude is located close to the wall. The YZ cutting planes show the vorticity magnitude in color, the YZ velocity u_{yz} using streamlines at X = [1, 1.5] m, and the axial velocity u_x at X = 2 m. The locations of the vortex cores change along the centerline axis, and the velocity is mainly axial at X=2 m. Future work will study the strong interactions between wall shear and arc instabilities that impact the vorticity and play an essential role in flow mixing.

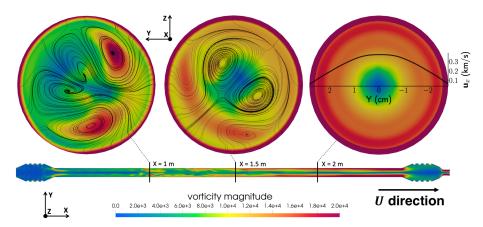


Figure 10: XY and YZ cutting planes of the vorticity ω , t=0.5738 s. The color shows the vorticity magnitude, the streamlines represent the velocity in the YZ plane u_{yz} at X=[1,1.5] m, and the plot shows the axial velocity u_x at X=2 m.

4.2. Electromagnetism and radiation

Figure 11 shows the comparison between the Joule heating and radiative heating/cooling profiles along the centerline axis. The radiative heat flux is the predominant cooling process of the gas medium. In the same figure, a snapshot of the radiative heating/cooling and Joule heating profiles presents fluctuations along the axis resulting from the electric arc instabilities. The radiative heating/cooling follows the Joule heating curve trend and is mostly negligible along the constrictor centerline. Joule heating is almost null at the start of the anode chamber and at the end of the cathode chamber.

Figure 12 shows the Joule heating and the radiative heating/cooling profiles along the radial axis at half-length of the constrictor. The radiative cooling $(\partial_x \cdot q^{rad} > 0)$ is due to the re-radiation of the heat from the electric arc core, where the temperature is the highest. The radiative cooling is almost negligible compared to Joule heating. The radiative heating $(\partial_x \cdot q^{rad} < 0)$ is strong

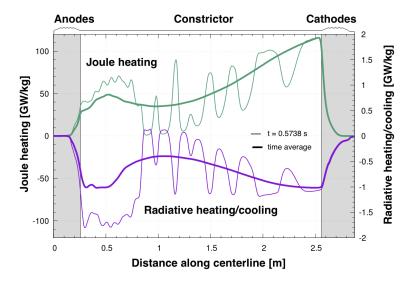


Figure 11: Joule heating $(|J_{imp}|)$ and radiative heating/cooling $(-\partial_x \cdot q^{rad})$ profiles along the centerline axis.

outside the electric arc core and is higher than the Joule heating next to the wall (2.30 cm < radius < 2.85 cm).

Figure 13 shows the cutting plane of the radiative heating/cooling from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat. The blue color represents the radiative cooling $(\partial_x \cdot q^{rad} > 0)$ which occurs at the center of the electric arc. The red color shows the radiative heating $(\partial_x \cdot q^{rad} < 0)$ at the surroundings of the electric arc core. The transverse cutting planes show the electric arc instabilities and the importance of the three-dimensional calculations of the radiation. In this work, the discretization of the radiative heat flux is done using 24 discrete directions and 100 spectral bands.

Figure 14 shows the cutting plane of the imposed current density from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat. The current density is mainly constrained close to the centerline of the constrictor due to the cold injection of air at the wall. The total current is equally distributed among the anodes due to the BC explained in Eq. (34). The continuity of current from Eq. (13) imposes the same total current at the anodes and the cathodes. The electric ballast system,

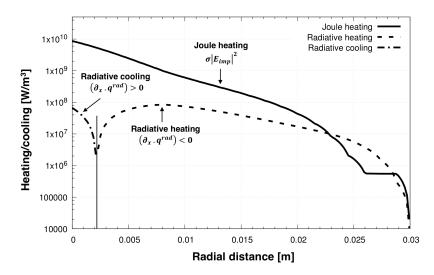


Figure 12: Joule heating and radiative heating/cooling profile in the radial direction halfway along the constrictor, $t=0.5738~\rm s.$

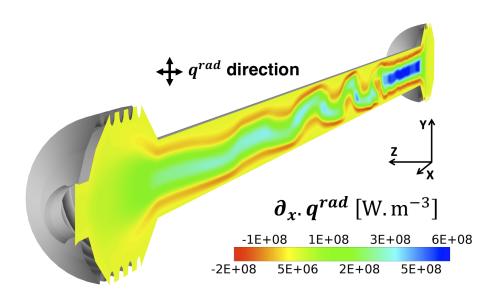


Figure 13: Divergence of the radiative heat flux from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat, $t=0.5738~\rm s$. The blue and red colors correspond to radiative cooling and heating, respectively.

implemented using Eq. (37), balances the current at each cathode to force an even distribution. The peak of the imposed current density is about 3 MA \cdot m⁻².

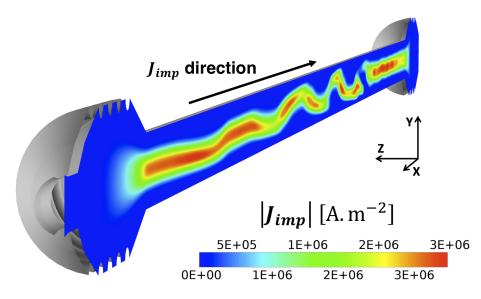


Figure 14: Imposed current density from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat, t=0.5738 s.

Figure 15 shows the cutting plane of the imposed magnetic field from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat. The imposed magnetic field is generated around the imposed current density according to Ampere's law (Eq. (3)). The maximum magnitude of the imposed magnetic field is about 0.02 T. The magnetic field direction is mainly perpendicular to the imposed current density. The magnetic field is null at the center of the electric arc and increases in the radial direction. Towards the wall, it decreases again. The curvature of the electric arc creates a stronger magnetic field at the concave part of the electric arc, which results in the kink instability that is shown in Fig. 15. The intensity of the imposed magnetic field decreases in the electrode chambers due to the more diffuse imposed current density.

Figure 16 shows the cutting plane of the external magnetic field created by the electrodes from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat. The magnitude

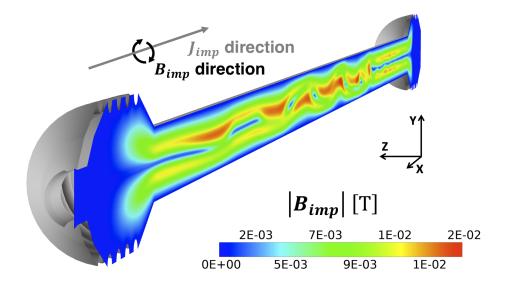


Figure 15: Imposed magnetic field from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat, t=0.5738 s.

of the external magnetic field is almost null in the constrictor. The maximum magnitude is about 0.01 T and is found around the electrodes. The direction is primarily longitudinal to the imposed current density direction.

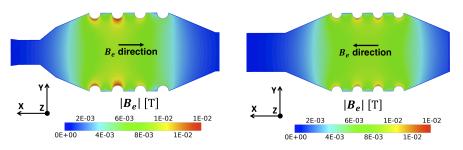


Figure 16: External magnetic field in the cathode (left) and a node (right) chambers, $\rm t=0.5738~s.$

Figure 17 shows the current as a function of time at the different cathodes. The sum of the 4 cathode currents gives a total current of 1170 A. Cathode 1 is the closest electrode to the constrictor. Cathode 4 is the nearest electrode to the nozzle throat. A peak of current appears on all the electrodes at 0.487 s. Then the 4 currents stabilize to a quasi constant value. The simulation seems

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to achieve a statistically steady state.

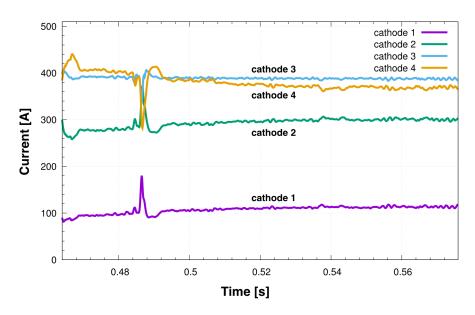


Figure 17: Current at the cathodes as a function of time.

4.3. Arc instabilities

Trelles [38] describes different types of instabilities that can play a dominant role in the dynamic geometry of a constrained electric arc. The fluid dynamic instabilities are produced by the large gradient of velocity, temperature, density, and viscosity between the cold gas and the plasma created by Joule heating. Shear flow instabilities are often considered one of the most prominent, leading to the growth of a small perturbation downstream that may drive the flow from laminar to turbulent. The thermal instabilities are caused by the non-uniform cooling of the plasma that produces a deflection of the electric arc. The injection of cold gas forces the arc to deviate away from the cold source. The magnetic field, both the external and that self-induced by the electric current, is responsible for the sausage and kink instabilities. The non-uniform plasma distribution and the curvature of the magnetic field impact these instabilities. Sausage instabilities occur when there is a change of cross section in the electric

arc. In this regard, a smaller cross section translates to a stronger magnetic field. Kink instabilities occur when the electric arc curves. Figure 18 shows the isosurface of the imposed current density at 1 $\rm MA \cdot m^{-2}$, a value representative of the main part of the electric arc. The color represents the magnitude of the total magnetic field. For high current density, the total magnetic field is primarily due to the imposed magnetic field in the constrictor. Even though the arc instabilities in Fig. 18 are a combination of all the instabilities, the kink instability is visible where the magnetic field is stronger on the concave side and weaker on the convex side of the plasma column. The electric arc seems to stabilize at the entrance of the electrode chambers. More advanced analysis of the arc behavior is required to fully understand and characterize the complex dynamic interaction of the cold gas as well as the inherent properties of thermal plasma. Future work will see the implementation of finite-rate chemistry in the existing model and may lead to new insights in low-pressure regions where the assumption of Local Thermal Equilibrium (LTE) breaks down.

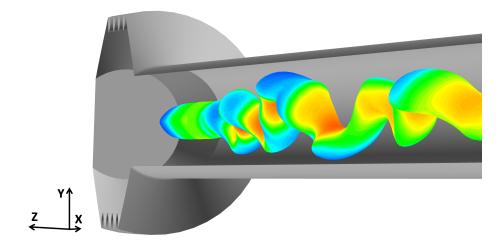


Figure 18: Arc instabilities in the constrictor, t=0.5738 s. The iso-surface shows the current density (1 MA · m⁻²). The color represents the magnitude of the total magnetic field.

4.4. Arc attachment

Figures 19 and 20 show the iso-surface of the current density (30 kA \cdot m⁻²) 292 at two different times (t = 0.4785 s and t = 0.4880 s). The color represents the 293 magnitude of the total magnetic field. The external magnetic field, predominantly present around the electrode chambers, has a more significant influence 295 on the arc attachment to the electrodes than the imposed magnetic field, almost 296 negligible in these regions. The Neumann boundary condition of the imposed 297 electric potential forces a constant and uniform current density among the anodes. On the other hand, the Dirichlet boundary condition at the cathodes sets a constant imposed electric potential, which translates to a non-uniform 300 and non-constant electric current among the cathodes. The location of the arc 301 attachment changes over time at the cathodes. The high temperature in the 302 cathode chamber makes the air conductive and allows a diffuse arc attachment. The ballast configuration balances the electric potential at each electrode to force an even distribution of the total current. It is shown that the attachment 305 at the cathodes is mainly driven by the upstream arc instabilities. The kink in-306 stabilities generated in the constrictor force the arc to move closer to a specific 307 region of the electrodes, which, in turn, provokes the attachment of the arc. Unlike the studies from Trelles [38], this LTE model does not need an artifi-309 cially high electric conductivity near the cathodes by choosing an interpolation 310 scheme that conserves the electric flux. 311

5. Conclusion

Further development of arc jet technologies has been limited by an incomplete understanding of unstable plasma flow occurring in the constricted arc heater. The direct observation of the complete arc dynamics is extremely difficult inside an arc jet, and its numerical modeling is highly challenging. The complexity of plasma flow simulations comes from the partial knowledge of constrained arc instabilities. The interactions of cold gas and plasma flow are strongly influenced by the radiation and the magnetic field that lead to com-

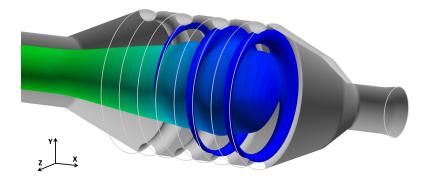


Figure 19: Arc attachment at the cathodes, t=0.4785~s. The iso-surface shows the current density (30 kA \cdot m⁻²). The color represents the magnitude of the total magnetic field.

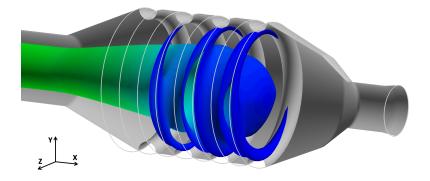


Figure 20: Arc attachment at the cathodes, t=0.4880~s. The iso-surface shows the current density (30 kA \cdot m⁻²). The color represents the magnitude of the total magnetic field.

plicated coupled instabilities. A separation of the different physics involved is 320 necessary to understand these instabilities. Arc attachment at the electrodes is 321 a central part of the dynamics of the arc. The development of the analysis tool ARC Heater Simulator (ARCHeS) software provides the capability to perform 323 three-dimensional time-dependent plasma flow simulations, which are necessary 324 to capture the complex behavior of the arc. The massively parallel simulation 325 support inherited in ARCHeS from its modular OpenFOAM architecture makes 326 this work possible. This tool provides estimates of the flow state at the inlet of the nozzle, which are used as inlet conditions for well-established aerothermal 328 techniques for estimating the aerothermal environment at the test articles. The 329 formulation used in ARCHeS has been demonstrated to be efficient to attain 330 convergence on very stiff non-linear systems encountered in plasma flow simu-331 lations. The unsteady flow is simulated from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat. Local Thermodynamic Equilibrium is assumed in the high-pressure arc 333 heater. The imposed electric potential, the imposed magnetic field, and the 334 external magnetic field are computed through Maxwell equations using a gener-335 alized geometric-algebraic multi-grid solver and are coupled to the flow through 336 the Navier-Stokes equations. The three-dimensional radiation is solved using 337 an accurate multi-band spectral discretization and Gaussian quadrature direc-338 tional discretization. The inlet mass flux and the total current were chosen to 339 be close to the operating conditions of large arc jet complexes used for TPS 340 evaluation. These numerical simulations performed on NASA's Pleiades super-341 computer have demonstrated their suitability for describing electric arc/cold 342 flow interactions and flow instabilities encountered in arc heaters. This model 343 is capable of describing the arc behavior and attachment at the cathodes with-344 out adding a reattachment model. The magnetic field plays an essential role 345 in the flow characterization from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat. The location and frequency of the arc attachment at the cathodes are mainly driven 347 by the upstream arc instabilities. A more complex analysis of the instabili-348 ties is needed to explain certain arc behaviors, such as the stabilization at the 340 electrode chambers. The high computational cost of these simulations limits

the spatial resolution for wall turbulence analysis. These numerical simulations 351 were obtained using 1200 cores of the NASA's Pleiades supercomputer during 352 three weeks, i.e., approximately 6×10^5 core-hours. Comparison to measurements within arc heaters, such as those of Winter et al. [47], is still needed to 354 validate this study. These experimental data are difficult to obtain due to the 355 extremely harsh environment within the heaters. Future work should include 356 a non-adiabatic boundary condition of the temperature at the electrodes. This 357 requires a two-temperature model as well as a model of the energy transfer between the electrodes and the gas. The assumption of equilibrium chemistry 359 in the entire arc heater from the anode chamber to the nozzle throat must be 360 verified by adding a finite-rate chemistry model coupled with the fluid. Includ-361 ing heavy species in the thermodynamic and transport properties in addition to this model may pave the way to new areas of research, including the simulations of other complex plasma applications such as space propulsion. Even though 364 large research efforts are still needed, this work has proven the effectiveness and 365 efficiency of a finite volume approach for obtaining high-fidelity modeling of the 366 governing equations involved in thermal plasma flows. 367

368 6. Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Entry Systems Modeling project (Michael 369 Barnhardt project manager and Aaron Brandis principal investigator) as part 370 of the NASA Game Changing Development program. Authors Jeremie B. E. 371 Meurisse and Nagi N. Mansour were funded by NASA contract NNA15BB15C 372 to Analytical Mechanics Associates (AMA), Inc. The authors would like to acknowledge Alan A. Wray (NASA Ames Research Center), Sander J. Visser 374 (AMA, Inc.), Sergio Fraile Izquierdo (AMA, Inc.), Federico Semeraro (AMA, 375 Inc.), Joseph C. Schulz (AMA, Inc.), Magnus Haw (AMA, Inc.), and Francesco 376 Panerai (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) for their review of this document and their useful discussions.

Appendix A. Thermodynamic and transport properties

The equilibrium chemistry compositions and the thermodynamic and transport properties (Fig. A.21, A.22, and A.23) are computed using the Mutation++ library [35]. LTE is assumed in the entire domain. Most of the domain where the arc instabilities occur has a high pressure (Fig. 4) which justifies the use of LTE. Future work will take into account the low-pressure regions where LTE breaks down. The air mixture used in this work is composed of the following 13 species: e^- , N, N^+ , O, O^+ . NO, NO^+ , N_2 , N_2^+ , O_2 , O_2^+ , Ar and Ar^+ .

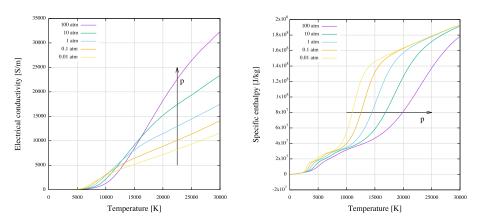


Figure A.21: Electrical conductivity (left) and enthalpy (right) as a function of temperature.

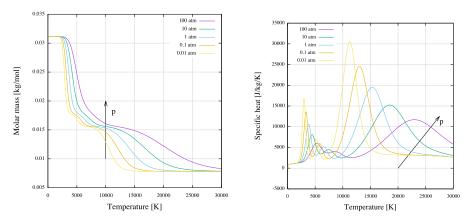
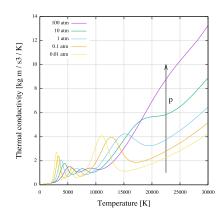


Figure A.22: Molar mass (left) and specific heat (right) as a function of temperature.



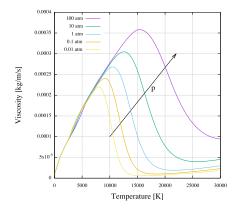


Figure A.23: Thermal conductivity (left) and viscosity (right) as a function of temperature.

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